DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 265 385 CE 043 391

AUTHOR Hollenback, Kathryn
TITLE Education and Employment. A Handbook to Promote Sex Equity.
INSTITUTION Pueblo Community Coll., CO.
PUB DATE Aug 85
NOTE 73p.
PUB TYPE Guides - Non-Classroom Use (055)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC03 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Administrator Attitudes; Attitude Change; Change Strategies; Educational Attitudes; *Females; Feminism; *Individual Needs; *Nontraditional Occupations; Questionnaires; Secondary Education; Self Evaluation (Individuals); Sex Bias; *Sex Fairness; Sex Stereotypes; Student Needs; *Student Recruitment; Teacher Attitudes; *Vocational Education

ABSTRACT

This handbook is intended to help instructors and administrators increase enrollments of females in nontraditional vocational training programs and thereby foster sex equity in society. Information is provided that is designed to address the following objectives: increasing nontraditional enrollment, facilitating positive educational experiences for women, and understanding the unique situation of women choosing nontraditional training. The first section includes a brief history of feminism in the United States, a rationale for increasing nontraditional enrollment and student recruitment efforts, and a self-scored gender communications quotient inventory for teachers and administrators. The next three sections contain quizzes dealing with work and the family, female labor force participation, and women and education along with information disproving many stereotypes. The final section consists of fact sheets covering such topics as recruitment strategies and supportive services needed by women in nontraditional vocational programs. (MN)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

ED265385

EDUCATION AND EMPLOYMENT

A HANDBOOK TO PROMOTE SEX EQUITY

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.
Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official NIE position or policy.

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

K. Hollenbeck

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

CE043391

EDUCATION and EMPLOYMENT

A Handbook to Promote Sex Equity

Written and Compiled

by

Kathryn Hollenback, Ph.D.

Pueblo Community College
Pueblo, Colorado

August, 1985

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

In the past, I have often refrained from including acknowledgements for fear of not mentioning all of the individuals who contributed to the various projects under my direction. The same is true of this project. The help and support that I received are a testimonial to the professional dedication of educators. However, I feel I must thank certain individuals and trust that those not mentioned will understand my appreciation.

First, to the members of the Project's Advisory Committee, Shirley Squire, Pat Korte, Barbara Ford, Selma Stevenson and Eloise Phelps, a big thanks for their time and effort. Their suggestions were valuable and the discussions enlightening.

There were several administrators who helped organize and carry through the Project. Mr. John Huff, Acting Vice-President at Pikes Peak Community College was most helpful in "volunteering" the many P.P.C.C. staff members (all of whom were wonderful) in order to coordinate the interviews with the women at P.P.C.C. A special thanks has to go to Dr. Tony Zeiss, Acting President of Pueblo Community College who first suggested undertaking the Project and who made funds and resources available to augment the funds provided by the S.B.C.C.O.E. Both of these men supported and valued the work completed for sex equity.

Being new to the College, I was pleasantly surprised by the support from the P.C.C. staff--the librarians, student services personnel, instructors, and clerical, especially Mrs. Thelene Hill for sorting through some of the most unkempt drafts and typing them, all as "extra" work.

Last and most important, my appreciation goes to the sixty anonymous women who consented to be interviewed during the research phase of the Project. These women provided the necessary information by sharing their insights, experiences and feelings with a total stranger. Their individual stories were inspiring; some of them are struggling against adversity in order to improve their lives. After listening to them, I have no doubt they will succeed--they have the ability and desire. To them I say good luck and thank you for showing others the inherent strength of women...

Kathryn Hollenback, Ph.D.
Pueblo Community College
August 26, 1985

FOREWORD

This Handbook is the result of a research project funded by the State Board of Community Colleges and Occupational Education for the State of Colorado. It was supported by additional funds and personnel by Pueblo Community College in Pueblo, Colorado. After the research was completed, the Handbook was developed.

To accomplish the research, sixty women enrolled in both traditional and nontraditional programs at Pikes Peak Community College and Pueblo Community College were personally interviewed to ascertain the following information based on their experiences and perceptions:

1. Why do women enroll in nontraditional programs?
2. What support or discouragement do they encounter when making a decision to enroll in nontraditional programs?
3. What difficulties, if any, are they experiencing?
4. What types of additional support services do women need while enrolled in these programs?
5. How can the number of women in nontraditional programs of vocational education be increased?

Some of that information is contained in this Handbook; all of the information is contained in the Final Report entitled: "Developing an Equity Handbook for Community College Personnel--A Resource to Increase Female Enrollemnt in Nontraditional Vocational Education Programs", submitted to Ms. Carol Vote, Equity Coordinator for Colorado.

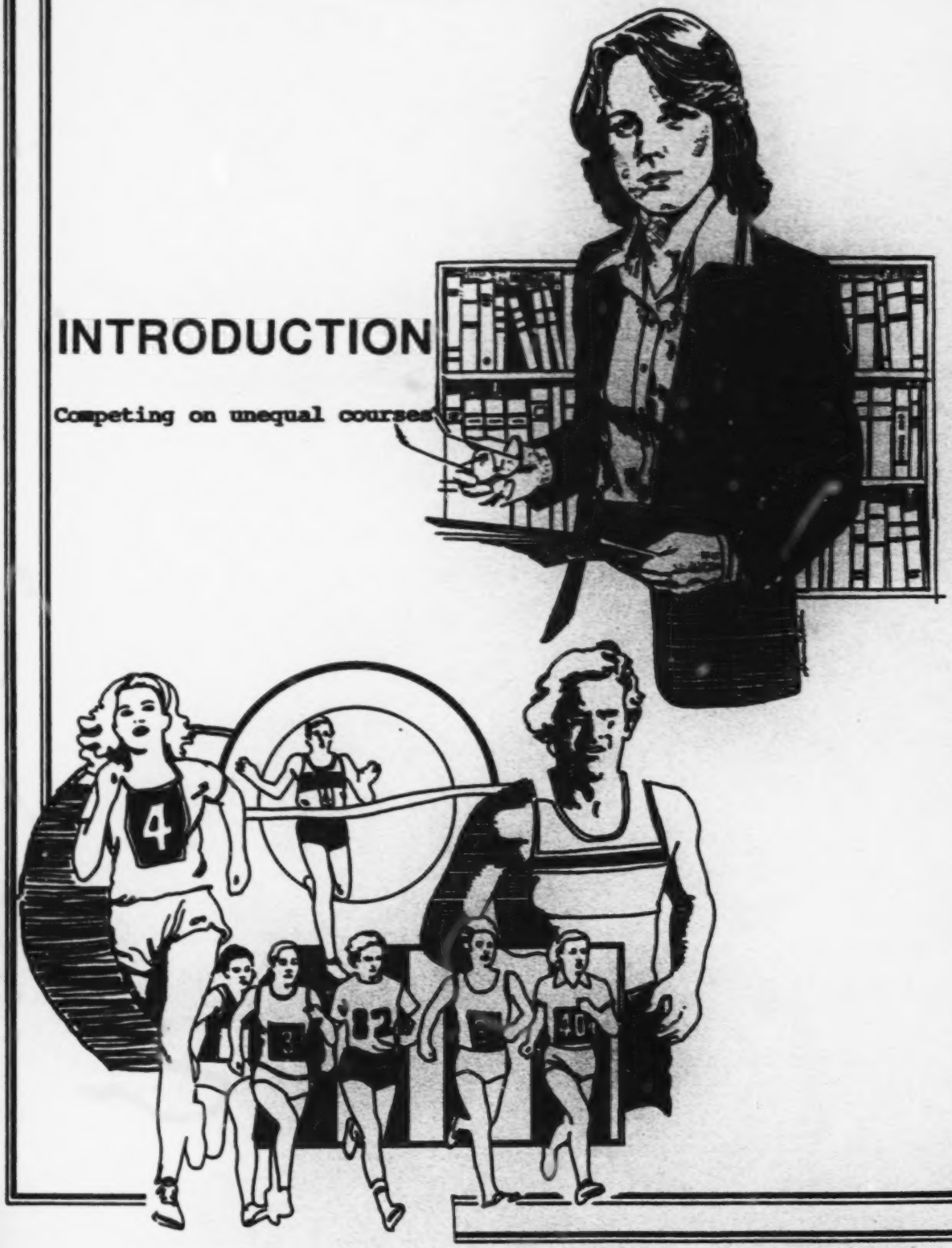
The major purpose of this Handbook is to provide information to educators relating to the vocational training of women enrolled in nontraditional programs in order to achieve sex equity in our society. The information was compiled to help instructors and administrators accomplish three objectives:

1. To increase nontraditional enrollment;
2. To facilitate positive educational experiences for women; and
3. To understand the unique situation of women chosing nontraditional training.

In order to provide the information in the most expeditious manner, the Handbook is divided into five sections: 1) Introduction, 2)Women and Society, 3) Women and Work, 4) Women and Education and 5) A Course of Action. Also included are references used in the preparation of the Handbook

INTRODUCTION

Competing on unequal courses



INTRODUCTION

Federal and state legislation has removed the major barriers that have prevented women from being trained in nontraditional programs of vocational education. Currently, women have the opportunity to gain the personal, professional and financial growth they desire via training once reserved for men only. Social reform through legislation has affected the roles women play in today's society, but these changes have not come without many sacrifices from women--only a few of which have been identified through research.

To assume, that once women have the opportunity to enroll in nontraditional programs they will share the same experiences as men, is naive. although vocational teachers, counselors and administrators are very aware of legislative mandates, many--especially men--hold traditional sex-role attitudes toward women. (Cunningham, 1979; Dittman, 1978; Eversole, 1977; Hantijis, 1977; Hollenback, 1984; Manrow, 1978; Steele, 1974; Thorne, 1971; Woerner, 1976). In a national study completed in 1979, vocational education teachers were reluctant to have nontraditional students in their courses (Harrison, 1979). Twenty-five percent of the female students surveyed in the study who had made nontraditional training choices reported they had faced discouragement when making that choice. Fourteen percent of the females who had chosen traditional career areas reported that they had considered enrolling in a nontraditional area, but were discouraged from doing so. The factors identified in the study which appeared to have occurred most frequently in vocational counseling practices were: 1) counselors suggested traditional options to students undecided as to a career and 2) sex was considered in determining the type of work study, cooperative education or job placement opportunity provided for students.

Although job requirements are not related to sex tradition (Women's Bureau, 1974), several studies have indicated that counselors have steered students into occupations "appropriate" for men and women. Research has pointed out that in many cases counselors have done a more effective job in counseling students for college preparatory than for occupational counseling. When engaged in occupational counseling, there has been a tendency for counselors to discriminate against females by recommending occupations that paid less, had lower prestige and required more supervision (Donahue, 1977; Frazier and Sadker, 1973; Harrison, 1979; Persons, 1972; Schlossberg and Peitrofesa, 1973; Smith, 1972; Swartz, 1974; Thomas, 1971; Thorne, 1974).

The barriers that exist for women are now covert and unintentional. Many of them are being placed by vocational instructors, counselors and administrators without these individuals even being cognizant of the detrimental effect of their actions. They believe that by following the equal access policies prescribed by law, they are fulfilling their responsibilities toward achieving equity. But, deleterious social factors plus traditional sex-role attitudes held by many vocational educators may be contributing to the difficulties being experienced by women enrolled in vocational education programs and women contemplating enrolling in these programs.

> The lowered expectations that teachers and counselors hold for female students do not even have to be stated to have their effect. In countless nonverbal ways they are transmitted almost intangibly and the impact they have on the students is devastating. This phenomenon--that one person's expectations for another's behavior should come to serve as a self-fulfilling prophecy--has far reaching implications (Frazier and Sadker, 1973, p. 139).

A Very Short History of Feminism in the United States

Modern feminism owes its origins to Mary Wollstonecraft's book, A Vindication of the Rights of Women, published in 1792 in England. At the time of her book the prevailing value of women was that of "innate" inferiority. This view dominated the societies of both Europe and the United States. When a few other women began attacking the concept of the natural or innate inferiority of females after publication of this book, most women of the time responded adversely. However, Wollstonecraft's views had set feminism in motion.

In the newly formed United States, the legal position of women was based on traditional English law which placed the wife as a subordinate to her husband. When a woman married, her legal entity as a person was suspended or incorporated into the legal personality of her husband. Upon marriage, the husband gained possession of his wife's properties, finances, etc. The laws concerning married women's property were not changed anywhere until the mid-nineteenth century, and many states retained them until much later.

Ironically, it was the abolitionists' movement of the 1830's that gave American women their first political experience even though they were not allowed to vote or hold political office. Although they were viewed as "unnatural" many women worked diligently for the freedom of slaves. The

initiating incident occurred in 1840 when the women delegates sent to the British and Foreign Anti-Slavery Society World Conference in London were not allowed to participate because they were women. Two of these women, Lucretia Mott and Elizabeth Cody Stanton were so incensed that they organized a protest meeting in the United States. The meeting was held in 1848 at Seneca Falls, New York and is considered the first organized step taken to achieve sex equity in the United States.

Thus began the golden years of feminism. Lead by Elizabeth Cady Stanton, members of the convention called for an end to all laws that subordinated women to men. The members of the convention demanded new laws recognizing "that woman is man's equal." Several national conventions were held, and throughout the 1840's feminists debated and wrote pamphlets, books and newspaper articles to support their causes.

It was in 1866 that more conservative and "respectable" feminists organized the American Equal Rights Association in an attempt to turn the tide of traditionalism in public opinion. The first goal of the organization was to obtain the right to vote along with the then recently freed Blacks in the Fifteenth Amendment. However, they failed. Black males received the right to vote; women did not.

Historians have always emphasized the suffrage movement of this time, but feminists worked for other reforms outside political rights such as dress reform, temperance (women's legal status offered them no protection under the law from abuse or abandonment by drunken husbands) biblical interpretations, etc. Suffrage was not the all-inclusive goal; it was the means of achieving equality.

Although it came slowly, women won the right to vote. During the 1890's, four states gave women the franchise, but the feminist movement began slowing around the turn of the Twentieth Century. The older leaders began to die and they had failed to prepare a new generation of leaders to replace them. However, from 1910 to 1913 five more states extended the right to vote to women. By 1918 President Woodrow Wilson dropped his opposition to suffrage and asked Congress to endorse the Nineteenth Amendment. Women were allowed to vote nationally for the first time in 1920. With the exception of a few organizations, feminism lay dormant for forty years.

Contemporary Feminism

Feminism was brought to life with the Women's Liberation Movement. although its actual beginnings and make-up were extremely complex and diverse,

it arose from three events which coincided during the early 1960's: the Equal Pay Act (1963), the President's Commission on the Status of Women (1963) and Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. The social climate backed by protective legislation, enabled women to organize and make demands for equity--in society, in the work force, and in the homes.

This organized movement--Women's Liberation--is commonly misunderstood and is often interpreted erroneously. For this reason, the phrase "Women's Lib" is not used by feminists; it has become a term of denigration. A more appropriate and less controversial term is sex equity.

The progress of the Women's Liberation Movement of the 1960's is extremely complex, but to understand it, one must understand that it was made up of several groups of women with very diverse philosophies and means, united in a common goal--social, political and personal equality for women. These groups ranged from extremely militant leftist organizations to middle class mothers to clergy women; all of whom recognized the need for reform. They engaged in a collective effort to gain control over their lives for the happiness of themselves and their families.

Today, the Women's Movement seems to have lost its momentum. there is no one reason for this -- it certainly is not because there is no need. Many point to the changes which have taken place in Washington. In the 1970's women at least had the appearance of power. Women won appointments to increasingly powerful government posts. However, at this time there is definitely a different political climate in Washington.

And what of the future of the Women's Movement? It is continuing, but on a different course. Women's groups are not as unified; different groups are working toward different goals. The current economic situation has forced women to spend their time trying to "keep their heads above water". Many feel that women are taking what power they had for granted and th... the more disadvantaged groups such as the poor or black perceive the mainstream of the Women's Movement as being for middle class only.

However, two very positive things are taking place; women have learned that there are two types of power; power over onesself and power over others. Women are developing the "inner" power by assuming control over their own lives; they are developing "outer" power through political action, not as much at the national level, but more and more at the local and state levels.

Today the image of women is changing. It no longer has to be as Edith Altback described in her historical image of women. "...generations of women

working through a vast mine of economic technological, and social forces, carrying always upon their backs the institutions of home and family (pg. vi).

Along with the misconceptions about the Women's Movement are the misconceptions about the ERA. The first Equal Rights Amendment was introduced to Congress in 1923 and died in committee. Approximately thirteen more attempts were taken to introduce an amendment; finally, in 1972 the ERA cleared the Senate and was sent to the States for ratification. It met failure when the majority of states did not ratify it within the required time period.

In January of 1985 a new ERA was brought forth to Congress...

DEFINITIONS

1. **Exclusionary language:** Words which exclude one sex or the other such as: "All men are created equal."

2. **Feminism:** The philosophy or belief that there must be political, economic and social equality between the sexes.

3. **Feminist:** A person who believes and acts toward the end of sex equity.

4. **Non-sexist:** considering each person as an individual with particular talents, needs, hopes, and weaknesses unrelated to gender; regarding sex stereotyping as meaningless restrictions upon people; sex-fair.

5. **Nontraditional Program:** a program is considered nontraditional on the basis of the sex of the people who are employed in the occupations being trained for. An occupation that is traditional for males such as a welder or carpenter is nontraditional for females. Nursing is an occupation that is traditional for females but nontraditional for males.

6. **Sex bias:** behavior that results from the underlying belief in sex role stereotypes. In many cases sex bias is based on the assumption that one sex is superior to the other.

7. **Sex discrimination:** any action that specifically denies opportunities, privileges, or rewards to a person or group because of their sex is termed "sex discrimination" if the action is against the law.

8. **Sexist:** making assumptions and or taking action on the basis of a person's gender; assuming that, because a person's gender is known, automatically something is known about her or his abilities, aspirations, strengths, or shortcomings; measuring people by sex stereotypes.

9. **Sex-role stereotyping:** attributing behaviors, interest, values and roles to a person or group of persons on the basis of sex.

Why Increase Nontraditional Enrollment?

Administration

Comply with Vocational Education's State Plan goal for a 15% increase in the next 3 years.

Increase full-time equivalency (FTE)

Public Relations--information on numbers of successful students/employees and information on vocational education as a good source of job training.

Improve Programs

-Articulation between secondary and postsecondary programs
-Sex-fair curricula, instructional materials, recruitment, brochures...
-Physical fitness training in nontraditional areas
-Job follow-up
-Physical access to classes
-Flexible scheduling
-Information on financial assistance
-Counselor's range of expertise is extended

New Program Development

-Counseling support groups
-Remedial courses in skills related to occupations
-Remedial courses in academics related to occupation, e.g. math
-Introductory/exploratory courses
-Methods of involving parents, spouses, peers in support
-Classes related to job-seeking skills, communication and interpersonal relations
-Day care
-Job development
-Interactive sessions with role models

Individual Faculty Members

-Knowledge of needs of special groups
-Affirmative student recruitment
-Accurate information on workforce and life/work planning
-Knowledge and use of appropriate teaching/counseling methods for diverse groups
-A new focus on math
-A new focus on the basics
-Stale subject matter is refreshed
-Challenge of finding different ways to present concepts

WHY RECRUIT NONTRADITIONALS?

Nontraditional jobs pay more, encourage good work.

Job satisfaction leads to productivity.

Sex equity is the responsibility of vocational educators.

The law requires sex equity.

Higher enrollments are possible for sex-fair administrators.

Humane practices generate community goodwill.

WHAT'S YOUR GENDER COMMUNICATIONS QUOTIENT (GCQ)?

How much do you know about how men and women communicate with one another? The 20 items in this questionnaire are based on research conducted in classrooms, private homes, businesses, offices, hospitals -- the places where people commonly work and socialize. If you think a statement is generally an accurate description of female and male communication patterns, circle the "T". If you think it's not an accurate description, circle the "F".

T F 1. Men talk more than women.
T F 2. Men are more likely to interrupt women than they are to interrupt other men.
T F 3. There are approximately ten times as many sexual terms for males as for females in the English language.
T F 4. During conversations, women spend more time gazing at their partner than men do.
T F 5. Nonverbal messages carry more weight than verbal messages.
T F 6. Female managers communicate with more emotional openness and drama than male managers.
T F 7. Men not only control the content of conversations, they also work harder in keeping conversations going.
T F 8. When people hear generic words such as "mankind" and "he," they respond inclusively, indicating that the terms apply to both sexes.
T F 9. Women are more likely to touch others than men are.
T F 10. In classroom communications, male students receive more reprimands and criticism than female students.
T F 11. Women are more likely than men to disclose information on intimate personal concerns.
T F 12. Female speakers are more animated in their conversational style than are male speakers.
T F 13. Women use less personal space than men.
T F 14. When a male speaks, he is listened to more carefully than a female speaker, even when she makes the identical presentation.
T F 15. In general, women speak in a more tentative style than do men.
T F 16. Women are more likely to answer questions that are not addressed to them.
T F 17. There is widespread sex segregation in schools, and it hinders effective classroom communication.
T F 18. Female managers are seen by both male and female subordinates as better communicators than male managers.
T F 19. In classroom communications, teachers are more likely to give verbal praise to females than to male students.
T F 20. In general, men smile more often than women.

ANSWERS TO GENDER COMMUNICATIONS QUOTIENT QUIZ

1. **True.** Despite the stereotype, the research is consistent and clear. In classrooms, in offices, in group discussion, in two-person conversations, men talk more than their fair share of the time. For example, in one experiment male and female subjects were asked to verbally describe pictures and engravings. The women's average description time was approximately three minutes. For a man, the average time was 13 minutes.
2. **True.** When women talk with other women, interruptions are evenly distributed. When men talk with other men, interruptions are evenly distributed. However, when men and women talk with one another, almost all interruptions are by male speakers. Sociologists Candace West and Donald Zimmerman analyzed conversations in university settings both on and off campus. They found that males interrupt females much more often than they interrupt other males and more often than females interrupt either males or females. These sociologists think that interrupting is a way of exercising power. They say, "Here we are dealing with a class of speakers, females, whose right to speak appears to be casually infringed upon by males."
3. **False.** According to one research study, 22 sexual terms were identified as describing men while 220 sexual terms applied to women. Further, most of the terms that label women as sexual beings tend to denigrate or trivialize them. Women are often compared to plants (clinging vine, shrinking violet), animals (chick, hog, cow, pig) and foods (honey, cookie, dish, sweetie).
4. **True.** Many studies--with subjects ranging from infants to the elderly--have shown that women are more likely than men to gaze at their partner. One reason may be that men talk more and women listen more. Research shows a listener of either sex looks more at a speaker than the speaker looks at the listener. Another possible reason why women gaze more frequently at a partner may be their need for and expertise in decoding nonverbal cues. However, in a direct staring confrontation women will be more likely to avert their eyes, especially when stared at by men. Frequently, a woman will tilt her head back rather than look directly at a man. Researchers call this a "presenting" gesture that reflects friendliness and submission.

5. **True.** Nonverbal messages carry over four times the weight of verbal messages. Other research shows that in most two-person conversations nonverbal messages convey more than 65 percent of the meaning. Women seem to communicate more effectively on this nonverbal channel. They are better than men at decoding nonverbal cues. They are also more likely to reflect their feelings through facial expressions.
6. **False.** Research conducted at a midwest hospital and in the clerical departments and production lines of manufacturing firms shows that both female and male managers score higher than the general population in communicating friendliness and approval to subordinates. further, women managers are no more emotionally open or dramatic than their male counterparts. Both sexes appear to feel that managers should not demonstrate these characteristics. However, there were some communications differences. Male managers were more dominant in style and more likely to direct the content and flow of the conversation.
7. **False.** While men do exert power and authority in controlling the course of conversations, women exert more effort in maintaining communication. Sociologist Pamela Fishman placed tape recorders in homes of couples who described themselves as free of traditional sex role stereotypes. Fishman recorded over 50 hours of conversations that occurred naturally. Over 96 percent of the topics men introduced were developed in conversations. Only 36 percent of the topics women introduced were similarly developed. Women asked more questions and were more willing to develop a topic introduced by men. In contrast, men "killed" conversational topics that women introduced by giving a minimal response, such as "um," and failing to ask questions or make more extended comments about the topic. In studies of mock jury deliberations, it has been found that women are more likely to make understanding and supportive comments.
8. **False.** Terms such as "mankind," "man" and "he" are supposed to be generic and are presumed to include both men and women. Research shows that this isn't really the case. People are more literal in their thinking. Studies with elementary, secondary, and college students show that when the supposed generic term, "man," is used people envision males, even when the content implies both men and women. In another study, students illustrated supposedly generic references (e.g., urban man) with male pictures more than they did when the references were neutral (e.g.,

urban-life). Other researchers found that when male generic nouns and pronouns were used to describe the job of psychologist, female students described the job as less attractive to them than when sex neutral terms were used. Women who were exposed to the feminine generic (she to include everybody) reported feelings of pride, importance and power. And yet another researcher reports that when an applicant for an executive position was described as a girl, subjects rated her as less "tough," "mature," "brilliant," and "dignified," and they gave her approximately $6000 less in salary than when the word "woman" was used.

9. **False.** In fact, just the opposite is true. Throughout their lives women are more likely to be touched than men. The touching of women by men--guiding them through the door, assisting them with coats, helping them into cars--happens so frequently that it goes virtually unnoticed. Nancy Henley studied couples in a variety of outdoor settings and found that men touch women far more than the reverse. While many would describe this touching as indication of warmth and intimacy or even as a sexual overture, Henley believes that it is nonverbal display of power.
10. **True.** The research is very consistent on this issue. From preschool through high school, male students are more likely than female students to be reprimanded for misbehavior. Some studies say they are eight to ten times as likely to be scolded. Sometimes they get reprimanded more because they are misbehaving more. But, other studies show that when females and males are misbehaving equally, the males are still more likely to get scolded and receive harsher penalities.
11. **True.** There is some inconsistency in the research here, but most studies show that women are more likely to reveal personal information about themselves. This pattern may reflect differences in power or status between males and females. For example, in work situations subordinates tend to reveal more personal information about themselves to their superiors than their superiors reveal to them. The more power a person has, the more personal information he or she is likely to receive.
12. **True.** Female speakers display more animated behavior including amount and intensity of eye contact, gestures, facial expressions, and body movement. Further, they are more likely to use a wider range of pitch and more variable intonations than male speakers. However, men appear to be more dramatic in their verbal behavior. They are more likely to tell anecdotes and jokes.

13. **True.** Women's space is far more likely to be intruded on by others. Women are approached more closely than men by both women and men. When women and men approach each other on the street, women are more likely to walk around men or move out of their way. In homes, men are more likely to have their room, study or den--an inviolate area where nothing is to be touched. Women also use space in a more confining way. While men are more likely to sit with arms and legs apart, women cross legs or ankles and sit with hands in their laps--taking up far less space. This reduced control of space or territory is characteristic of those with less power and status.

14. **True.** Both female and male members of audiences pay more attention to male speakers than female speakers. Audience members recall more information from presentations given by males. This appears to occur whether the information is stereotyped as appropriate for males or stereotyped as associated with females. And it occurs even when male and female speakers make an identical presentation.

15. **True.** According to linguist Robin Lakoff, "women's language" is characterized by certain patterns:

    . making statements that end in a questioning intonation or putting tag questions at the end of declarative sentences (This is a good movie, isn't it?)

    . using qualifiers such as "kind of" or "I guess"

    . excessively polite speech

    . use of "empty adjectives" (divine or lovely) and use of "so" with adjectives (so thoughtful)

    While not all studies support Lakoff's notion of women's speech, several show that women do express themselves with more diffidence and less assertion than men. Many researchers claim that tentative speech patterns do not characterize the speech of women so much as they characterize the speech of those who lack power. For example, one group of researchers analyzed communication in a police station. They found that both male and female clients who came to the station were more likely to use "women's language" than were either male or female police personnel. There are consequences to using "women's language." Both men and women who speak in a tentative, non-assertive style are less likely to be believed by a jury. In fact, only recently has the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) allowed women to read the news over the air because they were perceived to lack credibility or authority.

16. **False.** Men manage to capture more than their fair share of talk time. sometimes women actually help men gain this advantage because they are more likely to ask questions while men are more likely to give answers. However, men often take this advantage for themselves by interrupting women and by answering questions that are not addressed to them.

17. **True.** When people hear the word "segregation," they usually think about racial discrimination. Sex segregation may happen in more subtle ways, but it is widespread. Teachers, or students themselves, frequently form separate boy and girl lines, seating arrangements, work groups, play areas, and even science lab work teams. Even college classrooms display sex segregation in student seating arrangements. Children cross racial lines more often than sex lines in classroom communication. Some researchers have found that students are often unwilling to work together on science projects. However, teachers can can encourage boys and girls to play and work together simply by praising children engaged in cross sex interaction. An important implication of the research is that when girls and boys work and play together, they are less likely to hold stereotyped attitudes.

18. **True.** Despite the stereotypes, when employees work for a female supervisor, they vote their approval. Female managers are seen as giving more attention to subordinates, as more open to new ideas, and as more supportive of worker effort than male managers. Both female and male subordinates report that morale and job satisfaction are higher when supervised by women. Others report that women are more dependable, show greater concern and pay better attention to detail. Research on female managers in the business world is related to research in elementary schools. Studies on elementary schools with female principals show that these schools are warmer, more democratic, are characterized by higher student achievement and higher pupil and parental satisfaction.

19. **False.** Although girls get better grades than boys, they receive less verbal praise from teachers. When girls do get praise from teachers, it is likely to be for neatness and appearance. ("That's an attractive paper." "You have very neat handwriting.") In contrast, when boys get praise, it is more likely to be for the intellectual quality of their ideas. Not only do teachers praise boys more, but they also criticize them more, ask them more questions, and give them more attention in general.

20. **False.** Women are far more likely to smile than men. They do this in many different social situations even though they are not necessarily happy or amused. In one field study researchers smiled at approximately 150 males and 150 females in public. In general women returned the smiles more often than men. Women returned the smiles to men 93 percent of the time and to other women 86 percent of the time. Males smiled back at women 67 percent of the time, and they returned smiles to men 58 percent of the time. The researchers concluded that women give more than they get in this smiling exchange. "Women are exploited by men--they give 93 percent of the time but receive in return only 67 percent." Some writers claim that this pattern of frequent smiling is really a gesture of submission. Feminist Shulamith Firestone has called the smile a "badge of appeasement...the child/woman equivalent of the shuffle."

SCORING

18 to 20 correct: Professor Henry Higgins has nothing on you. You are very perceptive about human communication and subtle sex differences and similarities. For you, perhaps the most important question is: Do you act on what you know? Are you able to transform your knowledge into behavior that will enhance communications for yourself and for those around you?

16 to 17 correct: You're not ready to move into the professor's seat, but you can move to the head of the class. You know a good deal about communications and the gender gap. Continue to watch closely, read about the topic, trust your instincts, and act on your knowledge.

13 to 15 correct: Like most people, you've picked up some information about how people communicate--but you're missing a lot too. The next time you're in a social situation, step out of the communications flow and watch people closely. Listen to more than words. Watch who talks, how they speak, and how much. Observe those who don't talk at all; silence also carries a message. Look at people's facial expressions, their gestures and how they move about in the space around them. As you know, nonverbal messages can tell you a lot about the conversational gender gap, about power, about who has it and who doesn't.

Fewer than 13 correct: You've missed more than your fair share of these questions. You also may be missing important verbal and nonverbal cues about your own behavior and how to communicate effectively. Reread this quiz more

carefully. Stop, look and listen when you're with a group of people. Analyze the flow of communication. Remember you may miss your personal and professional goal if you also miss key verbal and nonverbal cues about conversational power, politics, and the gender gap.

* * *

Research shows very clearly that there is a gender gap in how people communicate. Both verbally and nonverbally, males use more than their fair share of time and space in the give and take of conversational politics. When the ideas of any group of people are not fully utilized, there is a loss of individual self esteem and human dignity. Further, there is a loss of knowledge and productivity. If the pathway to peace or the cure for cancer is in the mind of a woman, it is less likely that our nation will benefit than if this knowledge is in the mind of a man. There is a price we pay for the communication gender gap. The cost may be more than we can afford.

However, there are steps that we as educators can take to reduce or even eliminate this gap. Clearly the first step is to increase our awareness and the awareness of our colleagues to the nature and impact of different communications patterns. To assist in this process, we have provided you with several suggested observation procedures. These procedures are fairly simple to implement, yet designed to provide fruitful and objective data. They apply to both adult settings (meetings, conferences, interviews) as well as to classrooms.

Source: Unknown. Received from Dr. Harold Anderson, College of Education, Colorado State University, Fort Collins, Colorado.

WOMEN AND SOCIETY

A burden lain by tradition.

Some things to consider:

. Only 5% of the Nation's families are made up of an employed father, housekeeper mother and 2 children.

. About 1/3 of all families maintained by women have incomes below the poverty level.

. If the rate of poverty increases as it has, the American "poverty" population would be composed solely of women and their children by about the year 2000. (National Advisory Council on Economic Opportunity)

. Of the 61,400,000 million families in the Nation 1 out of 6 is maintained by a single female.

. The number of women maintaining families on their own has more than doubled over the past two decades; it is presently 9,700,000 women.

. The number of mothers whose children under age 21 had absent fathers rose from 7,100,000 in 1978 to 8,400,000 in 1982.

. Only 59% of absent fathers in 1978 were required to pay child support; only about 1/3 paid the full amount.

WORK-FAMILY STEREOTYPING QUIZ

Instructions: The following are either true or false statements about work, families and stereotyping. Please circle the "T" for each one you believe is True and "F" if you believe the statement is False.

T F 1. A majority of women work because of economic need.

T F 2. Women have a much higher absentee rate from their jobs.

T F 3. Males tend to have more difficulty than females in expanding their roles beyond traditional expectations.

T F 4. The majority of families are supported solely by the father's income.

T F 5. The average woman worker is slightly less educated than the average man worker.

T F 6. More young men than women believe the women's place is in the home.

T F 7. Today more than half of all women between 18 and 64 years of age are in the labor force.

T F 8. The single woman is usually employed for 40 or less years.

T F 9. The average age at which young people marry today has not changed significantly in the past 15 years.

T F 10. A majority of women who leave work to have children return to work.

T F 11. Women change jobs more often than men.

T F 12. From 1970 to 1976, there was a 33 percent increase in households maintained only by women.

T F 13. Most unemployed men do not have the education or the skill to qualify for many of the jobs held by women.

T F 14. The average number of people per household today is four people.

T F 15. Employed women are offered fewer positions of responsibility than employed men.

T F 16. When wives work outside the home, their husbands spend significantly more time on household chores.

T F 17. The employment of mothers leads to juvenile delinquency.

T F 18. In 1976 one out of every five children under eighteen years of age lived in one parent families.

T F 19. Most men who have worked for women supervisors do not complain about working for a woman.

T F 20. The average woman worker earns less than three-fifths of what a man does, even when each works full-time.

ANSWERS
WORK-FAMILY-STEREOTYPING QUIZ

1. **TRUE - A majority of women work because of economic need.**

   Of nearly 34 million women in the labor force in March 1973, nearly half were working because of pressing economic need. They were either single, widowed, divorced, or separated or had husbands whose incomes were less than $3,000 a year. Another 4.7 million had husbands with incomes between $3,000 and $7,000. The Bureau of Labor Statistics estimates for a low standard of living for an urban family of four was $7,386 in autumn 1972. U.S. Department of Labor, Employment Standards Administration, Women's Bureau, 1974.

2. **FALSE - Women have a much higher absentee rate from their jobs.**

   A Public Health Service study of worktime lost by persons 17 years of age and over because of illness in injury shows an average of 5.6 days lost by women and 5.3 days lost by men during the calendar year in 1967. Significant differences were noted between men and women in the amount of time lost because of acute or chronic illness. Women lost an average of 3.7 workdays because of acute illness, whereas men averaged just 3.3 days away from work for this reason. On the other hand, men were more likely than women to be absent because of chronic conditions such as heart trouble, arthritis, rheumatism, and orthopedic impairment. U. S. Department of Labor, Wage and Labor Standards Administration, Women's Bureau, 1969.

3. **TRUE - Males tend to have more difficulty in expanding their roles beyond traditional ones than do females.**

   Research indicates that the social-emotional development of both sexes is hindered by sex-role stereotyping. Though some believe that females are more apt to be limited by stereotyping, it would appear that males are more adversely affected in many ways. There is evidence of more pressure among males to conform to the masculine stereotype earlier in life than for females to conform to the feminine stereotype. It appears to be more difficult for males than females to unlearn sterectyped behaviors. Mussen, P. H. "Long-Term Consequences of Masculinity on Interests in Adolescents." Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1962.

4. **FALSE - The majority of families are supported solely by the father's income.**

   In a survey conducted in 1972, the husband was the only wage earner in less than 3 out of 8 husband-wife families. In 495 of husband-wife families, both husband and wife were wage earners. Only 36% were supported solely by the husband's income. U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1975.

5. **FALSE - The average woman worker is slightly less educated than the average man worker.**

   A smaller proportion of women workers than of men workers were in the lowest educational groups. Between men and women workers, a gap in

average (mean) years of schooling completed has been narrowing and has almost disappeared. By 1973 the corresponding means were 12.1 among women workers and 12.0 among men workers. U. S. Department of Labor Statistics, 1975.

6. **TRUE - More young men than women believe the woman's place is in the home.**

   Survey research indicates that more adolescent males than adolescent females believe homemaking and child rearing are the responsibilities of women and that "a woman's place is in the home." Entiwisle, D. R. and Greenburger, E. "A Survey of Cognitive Styles in Maryland Ninth Graders: IV Views of Women's Roles". Psychological Abstracts, 1971.

7. **TRUE - Today more than half of all women between 18 and 64 years of age are in the labor force.**

   54% of all women 18-65 years of age are in the labor force. Statistics also indicate that more than 60% of all women between the ages of 20 and 24 are participating in the labor force. Up to the age of 55 at least 50% of all women are participating in the work force. U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

8. **FALSE - The single woman is usually employed for 40 years or less.**

   The expected work life of a woman is closely related to her marital status and the number of children she has. In the large group of women who enter the labor force by age 20, the relatively small number who never marry have a worklife expectancy of 45 years. This is about 10 years longer than for those women in the group who marry but have no children and about 2 to 3 years longer than for those who become widowed or divorced. U. S. Department of Labor, Wage and Labor Standards Administration, Women's Bureau, 1969.

9. **FALSE - The average age at which young people marry today has not changed significantly in the past 15 years.**

   The median age at which young people marry is changing, particularly among young woman. By 1976, 72% of 19-year-old girls were single as compared to 60% in 1960. Among 20-24 year olds of both sexes, more than 62% of the males and 42% of the females were single in 1976, compared to 53% of males and 28% of females in 1960. U. S. Bureau of the Census, "Marital Status and Living Arrangements: 1976", Series P-20, No. 306, Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office.

10. **TRUE - A majority of women who leave work to have children return to work.**

    In 1974, 54% of 15.8 million mothers of children 6 to 17 were in the work force. This figure would have been higher if included were mothers who return to the labor force after their children had grown up or passed the age of 18. U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1975.

11. **FALSE - Women change jobs more often than men.**

The worklife pattern of women - with many working for a few years after school, leaving the labor force for marriage, and particularly childbearing, and returning to the labor force after their children are grown or reach school age - would tend to increase their labor force turnover. Some studies have indicated that turnover rates for women are higher than those for men. However, it can be argued that comparison of the overall difference in women's and men's rates of labor force turnover fails to take account of the influence of skill level of the job or occupation. Comparisons of the absenteeism and labor turnover rates of women and men need to be related to those of women and men in comparable jobs and circumstances if they are to be meaningful. U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1968.

12. **TRUE - From 1970 to 1976, there was a 33 percent increase in households maintained only by women.**

From 1970 to 1976, there was a 33% increase in households maintained only by women. U. S. Bureau of Census, "Households and Families by Type: 1976", Series P-20, No. 296, Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office.

13. **TRUE - Most unemployed men do not have the education or the skill to qualify for many of the jobs held by women.**

If all the married women, which does not include single working women, stayed home and unemployed men were placed in their jobs, there would still be 17.3 million unfilled jobs. However, most unemployed men do not have the education or the skills to qualify for many of the skilled jobs held by all working women, such as secretaries, teachers, nurses and clerical workers. U. S. Department of Labor, Employment Standards Administration, Women's Bureau, 1974.

14. **FALSE - The average number of people per household today is 4 people.**

In 1960 the average household had 3.3 people, and in 1976, 2.9 people. this figure is expected to continue to decline because of a number of factors: delayed marriage, more economic independence among women, an increase in the widowed population and an increase in the number of houses shared by unrelated people. U. S. Bureau of the Census, "Households and Families by Type: 1976", Series P-20, No. 296, Washington, D. C., Government Printing Office.

15. **TRUE - Employed women are offered fewer positions of responsibility than employed men.**

Relatively few women have been offered positions of responsibility. But when given these opportunities, women, like men, do cope with job responsibilities in addition to personal or family responsibilities. In 1973, 4.7 million women held professional and technical jobs, another 1.6 million worked as nonfarm managers and administrators. Many others held supervisory jobs at all levels in offices and factories. U. S. Department of Labor, Employment Standards Administration, Women's Bureau, 1973.

16. **FALSE - When wives work outside the home, their husbands spend significantly more time on household chores.**

A 1976 survey of families reported that even when employed, wives still assumed the major responsibility of household work. Although almost half of today's families have both husband and wife employed, time contributed by husbands and children to household work does not dramatically increase. When the wife is employed wives spend less time on household work than unemployed ones, but considerable more time than husbands. Walker, K. E., "How Much Help for Working Mothers? The children's Role." Human Ecology Forum, 1970.

17. **FALSE - The employment of mothers leads to juvenile delinquency.**

Studies show that many factors must be considered when seeking the causes of juvenile delinquency. Whether or not a mother is employed does not appear to be a determining factor. These studies indicate that it is the quality of a mother's care rather than the time consumed in such care which is of major significance. U. S. Department of Labor, Employment Standards Administration, Women's Bureau, 1973.

18. **TRUE - In 1976, one out of every five children under eighteen years of age lived in one-parent families.**

In 1976, only 4 out of 5 (80%) of all children under 18 lived with two parents (at least one of whom was a natural parent) compared to 88% in 1960. The decline was greater among blacks, with less than half living with two parents in 1976. Of the 20% who did not live with two parents, most were living with their mothers. U. S. Bureau of the Census. 1976 Statistical Abstract of the U. S., Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office.

19. **TRUE - Most men who have worked for women supervisors do not complain about working for a woman.**

In one study where at least three-fourths of both male and female respondents (all executives) had worked with women managers, their evaluation of women in management was favorable. On the other hand, the study showed a traditional/cultural bias among those who reacted unfavorably to women as managers. In another survey in which 41% of the reporting firms indicated that they hired women executives, none rated their performance as unsatisfactory; 50% rated them adequate; 42% rated them as same as unsatisfactory; 50% rated them adequate; 42% rated them as same as their predecessors; and 8% rated them better than their predecessors. U. S. Department of Labor, Employment Standards Administration, Women's Bureau, 1974.

20. **TRUE - The average woman worker earns less than three-fifths of what the average man worker does, even when each works full-time.**

Women who worked full-time had median usual weekly earnings of $124 in May 1974. This was about 61% of the $204 reported for men. Between May 1967 and 1974, the median weekly earnings of women, in current dollars increased by about 59% - from $78 to $124. However, when the effects of price changes are removed (the Consumer Price Index rose by about 46%

between May 1967 and 1974), the rise in weekly earnings was relatively slow. For example, when measured in dollars of constant (1967) purchasing power, median weekly earnings of full-time women increased from only $78 to $85 or 9% in the 7-year period; median earnings of full-time male workers increased by about 11% (in constant dollars) during the same period. The gap between women's and men's earnings widened slightly between 1967 and 1974. In 1967 women's usual weekly earnings were more than 62% of men's; in 1974 they were less than 61%. U. S. Department of Labor, Employment Standards Administration, Women's Bureau, 1975.

Oh, that explains the difference
in our salaries!

UNEQUAL STATUS CUES IN INTERPERSONAL BEHAVIOR

Subtle Ways that Women Unknowingly Communicate Deference

1. First versus last name. In ambiguous situations in which the status of others is unclear men typically refer to people by their first names while women generally resort to a polite or formal form of address. It is commonly accepted that the right to call another by their first name goes to the person of higher status.

2. Self disclosure. Women in this society are expected to be more self disclosing than men. Self disclosure enhances the other person's power over you because it provides them with information about you and this gives them an advantage that you don't have.

3. Personal space. Dominant individuals have a larger "personal space," i.e., they are approached less closely than those of lower status. Women consistently have smaller personal spaces than men and are more likely to allow their space to be invaded by others.

4. Eye contact. A direct stare or gaze is a common gesture of dominance. When women maintain eye contact in interactions with men they tend to modify the gesture by tilting their heads slightly and periodically averting their eyes. This reduces the dominance impact and will often be perceived as submissiveness.

5. Smiling. Persons of low status smile more often than do higher status individuals.

6. Touching. As with first naming, it is considered presumptuous for a person of low status to initiate touch with a person of higher status. Research has demonstrated that females are touched more than males and are expected to touch others less.

7. Verbalization. Contrary to popular myth, research has shown that men consistently talk more than women. Further, males are much less likely than females to permit others to interrupt them.

8. Vocalization. In general, the higher the pitch of voice the less the individual is perceived as having authority. While there are anatomical differences between females and males that produce slightly higher pitch in females, this anatomical difference is nowhere near so great as to produce the difference that is heard.

9. Physical posture. When seated, males tend to take up more space by sprawling, thus claiming more territory. Further, men position their arms and legs in more angular forms (rather than curved) which is interpreted as assertive and challenging. People perceive height as directly related to power, therefore appearing tall creates an impression of strength. In addition, persons of low status tend to hold their arms close to their bodies and keep their legs together when they talk with someone of higher status.

"A man's behavior toward a woman might be interpreted as an expression of either power or intimacy, depending on the situation. When the same behavior is engaged in by a woman and directed toward a man, it is interpreted only as a gesture of intimacy--and intimacy between the sexes is always seen as sexual in nature. Because our values say that women should not have power over men, women's nonverbal communication is rarely interpreted as an expression of power. If the situation precludes a sexual interpretation, women's assumption of the male perogative is dismissed as deviant (castrating, domineering, unfeminine)".

Source: Nancy Henley & Jo Freeman. "The Sexual Politics on Interpersonal Behavior." In Women: A Feminist Perspective, Jo Freeman (Ed.). Palo Alto: Mayfield Publishing company, 1975.

DIFFICULTIES ENCOUNTERED BY WOMEN

ENROLLED IN NONTRADITIONAL CLASSES

Financial

Scheduling of Classes

Single Parent Problems w/Children

School vs. Work

Family Problems

Child Care

Food Stamps vs. Part-time Work

Studying for Older Learners/Testing

Peer Acceptance of Major

Husband's Income Included in Grant Application

School vs. Studying at Home

Received Lower Grades Because Female

New Terminology

Women Must Be Better

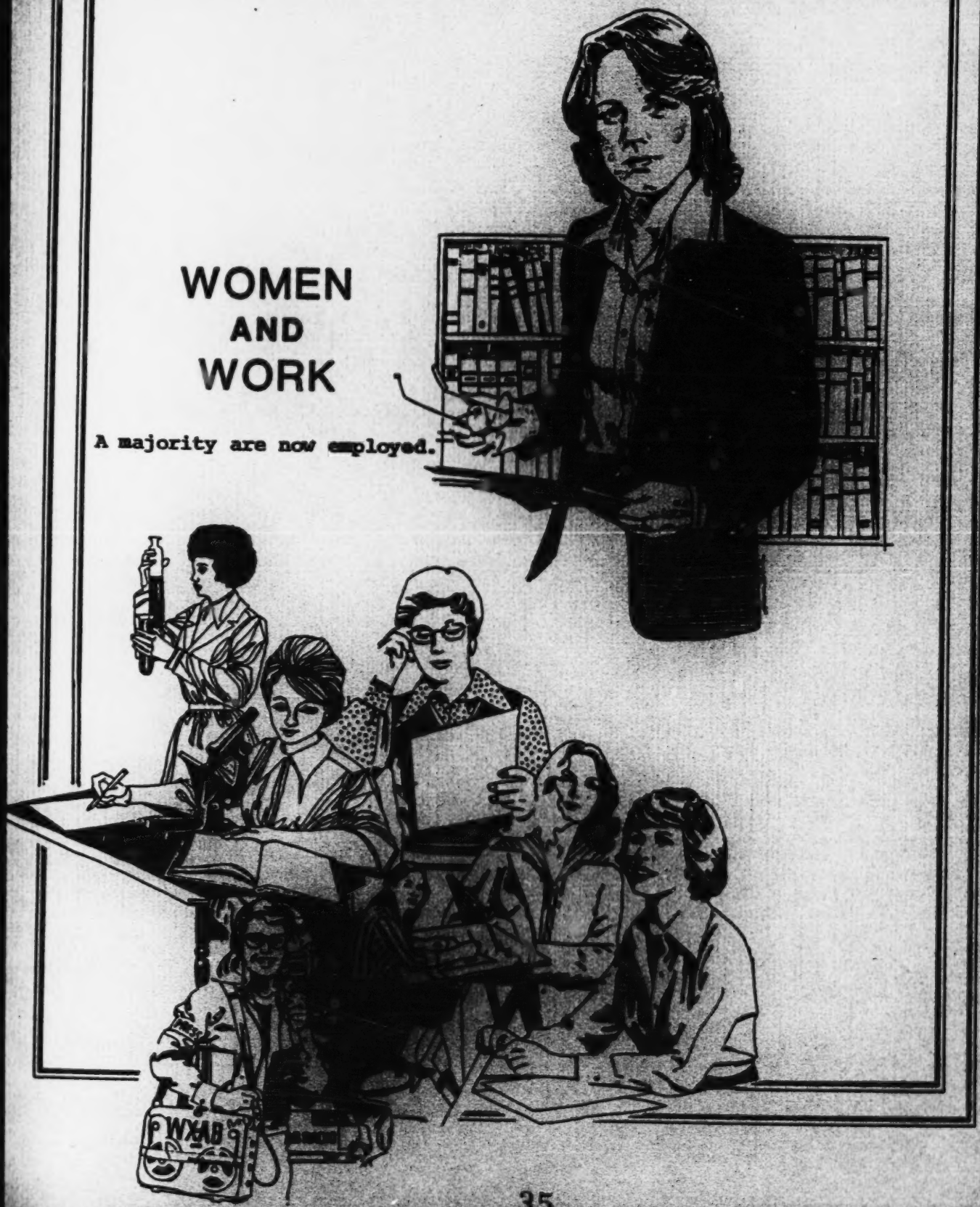
Applying for Financial Aid

Lack of Support from Husband

Source: Hollenback, K. L. "Developing an Equity Handbook for Community College, 1985.

WOMEN AND WORK

A majority are now employed.



WOMEN AND WORK

Some things to consider:

- Nine out of every ten females will work outside the home sometime in their lives from 25 to 45 years.
- In 1981, 54% of all women in the United States between the ages of 16-64 worked outside the home. That was:

  43% of the Nation's work force,
  45,760,000 women.

- Today 60% of these women are working; that is a total of 50,000,000 women.
- Women make 59¢ for every dollar men make.
- 66% of working women are widowed, singled, divorced or separated.
- In 1970, 12,100,000 or 4 out of 10 mothers were in the civilian labor force. In 1984 19,500,000 women with children under the age eighteen were working or looking for work.
- Men spend an average of 52 minutes a day on coffee breaks; women average 35.
- Women-owned businesses generated approximately $40 billion in receipts in 1980.
- Women now constitute 14.7% of the lawmakers in the 50 states, or 1,097 out of 7,461. Up from 8% ten years ago.
- Between 1972 and 1979, the number of self-employed women grew 43%, five times faster than self-employed men.
- In 1982, women represented 28 percent or 2,500,000, of all the self-employed; that is a 69% increase since 1972.
- Women owned 22% of all sole proprietorships in 1980.
- Less than 14% of all Math & Science Ph. D.'s are women
- Only 6% of all professional engineers are women.
- Less than 3% of the nearly 1,400 members of the National Academy of Science are women
- Less than 6% of workers in the high-paying skilled and semi-skilled craft jobs are women.

FEMALE AND MALE PARTICIPATION IN THE PAID WORK FORCE AND IN VOCATIONAL EDUCATION PROGRAMS: WHAT ARE THE FACTS?

Directions: These multiple choice questions are designed to help you assess your knowledge of females' and males' participation in the paid work force and in vocational education programs. Under each statement, you will see a number of choices for filling in the information missing in each statement. Select the alternative you believe is correct, and write its letter in the blank.

1. Women make up_____of the nation's paid work force.

   a. 26% b. 41% c. 54%

2. For every $1.00 men earn, women earn_____.

   a. 95¢ b. 76¢ c. 59¢

3. _____of American women between the ages of 18-64 are employed outside the home.

   a. 41% b. 34% c. 54%

4. _____of American men between the ages of 18-64 are employed outside the home.

   a. 74% b. 86% c. 91%

5. The average young woman today can expect to spend_____years in the paid work force.

   a. 7.3 b. 17.1 c. 22.9
   d. 31.2

6. The average 20-year-old American male can expect to work for pay outside the home for_____years.

   a. 36 b. 52 c. 42

7. Out of every 10 young women in high school today,_____will work for pay outside their homes at some point in their lives.

   a. 9 b. 5 c. 7.4

8. Both husband and wife work in_____percent of the nation's marriages.

   a. 35 b. 47 c. 28

9. The median income of working women with four years of college is_____ that of men who have completed eight years of elementary schools.

a. greater than b. the same as c. less than

10. The difference between the average yearly incomes of male and female workers has_____over the past 20 years.

a. increased b. decreased c. remained the same

11. _____women have the highest labor force participation of any group of women.

a. Asian-American b. Black c. Hispanic
d. Native American e. White

12. About_____out of ten adult women are either single, widowed, divorced, or separated from their husbands and are, therefore, responsible for their own financial support.

a. four b. six c. eight

13. Women workers are absent from work_____male workers.

a. more than b. less than c. as often as

14. In 1973, the average earnings of white males and females and minority females and males were distributed from highest to lowest in the following order:_____

a. white males, white females, minority females, minority males
b. white males, minority males, white females, minority females
c. white males, minority females, white females, minority males

15. _____percent of all women workers are employed in clerical occupations.

a. 11.2 b. 18.1 c. 27.8
d. 35.0

16. Fifty percent of men in the paid labor force are employed in the three occupational categories which employ the largest number of men (skilled crafts, professional and technical occupations, and managerial occupations). In contrast,_____percent of all women in the paid labor force are employed in three occupational groups (clerical occupations, service occupations, and technical occupations).

a. 40 b. 60 c. 70

17. _____percent of all vocational education programs had enrollments which were 90 percent male or 90 percent female in 1976.

a. 15 b. 27 c. 39

18. The vocational training area with the largest female enrollment (more than one-third of all females enrolled in vocational education) is_____.

    a. consumer and homemaking programs
    b. occupational home economics
    c. office occupations

19. _____percent of all students enrolled in vocational education programs in the area of trades and industry in 1976 are female.

    a. 13 b. 21 c. 34

20. Trends in male/female enrollments in vocational training programs show that_____.

    a. females are enrolling in traditionally male courses at a faster rate than males are entering traditionally female programs.

    b. males are enrolling in traditionally female courses at a faster rate than females are entering traditionally male programs.

    c. the entry of males and females into programs nontraditional to their sex is occurring at about the same rate.

ANSWER SHEET
FEMALE AND MALE PARTICIPATION IN THE PAID WORK FORCE AND IN VOCATIONAL EDUCATION PROGRAMS: WHAT ARE THE FACTS?

1. b) 41%
2. c) 59%
3. c) 54%
4. c(91%
5. c) 22.9
6. a) 36
7. a) 9
8. b) 35%
9. c) less than
10. b) decreased
11. b) Black
12. a) four
13. c) as often as
14. b) white males - $11,633
    minority males - $8,363
    white females - $6,544
    minority females - $5,772
15. d) 35%
16. c) 70%
17. c) 39%
18. a) consumer and homemaking
19. a) 13
20. b) males are enrolling in traditional female courses at a faster rate than females are entering traditionally male courses.

WOMEN* IN THE LABOR FORCE 1951-81

Year	TOTAL Women	% of TOTAL LABOR FORCE	% of Female* POPULATION
1981	45,760,000	43.0	52.2
1971	32,091,000	38.2	43.3
1961	23,806,000	33.8	38.1
1951	19,016,000	30.7	33.8

*16 years of age and older

Source: U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, "Handbook of Labor Statistics, 1978" and "Employment and Earnings," January 1979, 1980, 1981, and 1982.

COMPARISON OF MEDIAN EARNINGS OF YEAR-ROUND

FULL-TIME WORKERS, BY SEX 1961-1981*

Year	Median Earnings Women	Median Earnings Men	Earning Gap In $	Womens' Earnings as a % of Mens'	% of Mens' Earnings Exceeded Womens'
1981	$12,001	$20,260	$8,259	59.2	68.8
1971	5,593	9,399	3,806	59.5	68.0
1961	3,351	5,644	2,293	59.4	68.4

*1981 data for persons 15 years and older; earlier data are for 14 years and older.

Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: "Money Income of Families and Persons in the United States," Current Population Reports, 1957 to 1980, and 1981 advance report.

HOW MUCH DO NONTRADITIONAL JOBS PAY?

That depends on the job. In general, though, **nontraditional jobs for women pay more** than traditional jobs. **Nontraditional jobs for men generally pay less** than traditional jobs. However, when men do enter nontraditional jobs, salaries tend to go up.

Traditional (Women)

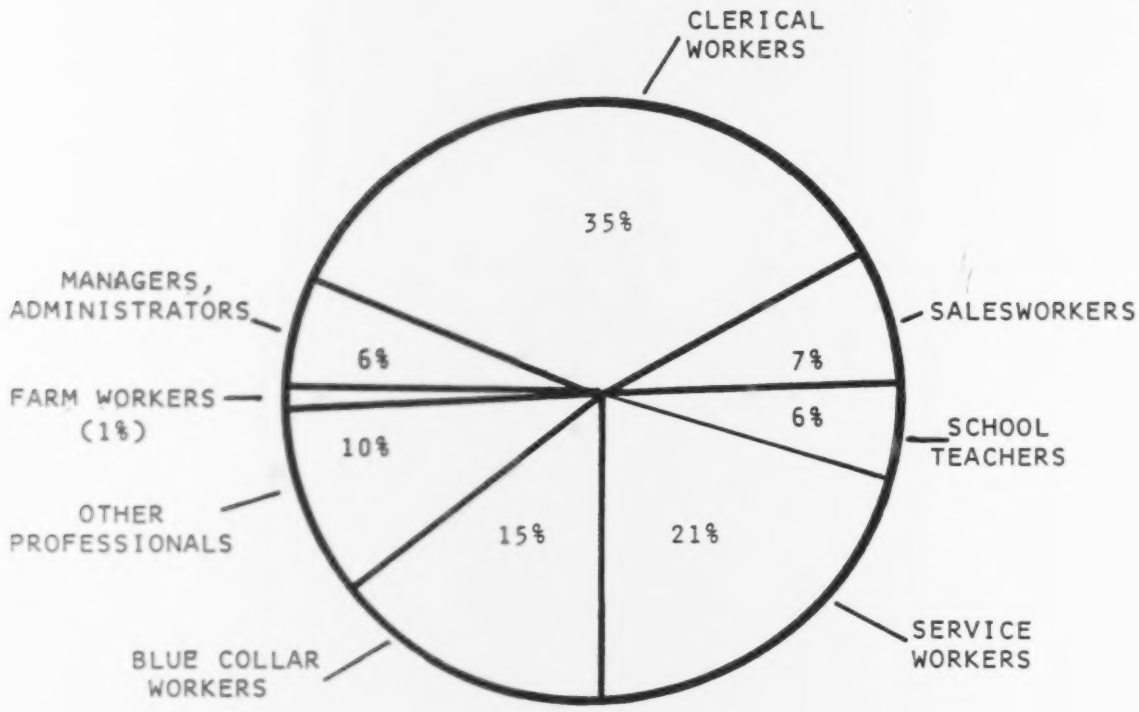
teacher aid	$12,500
secretary	10,000-11,000
practical nurse	11,000-14,000
child care workers	10,000
retail buyers	11,000-12,000
fashion designers	11,000
dressmakers	11,000
sales workers	11,000
food service workers	11,000

Nontraditional (Women)

auto mechanic	$14,000-18,000
court reporter	24,500
electronics technician	16,000-20,000
carpenter	14,000-18,000
crane operator	14,000-18,000
instrument repairer	16,000-20,000
cost estimator	14,000-18,000
purchasing agent	14,000-17,000
bricklayer	14,000-18,000

PROPORTION OF WOMEN WORKING IN MAJOR OCCUPATIONAL GROUPS

WHERE WOMEN ARE EMPLOYED
SHARE OF ALL WOMEN WORKING



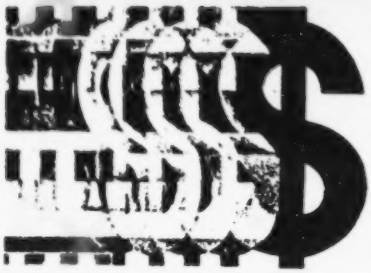
EMPLOYMENT PERCENTAGES

U.S. News & World Report, January 15, 1979

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION ENROLLMENTS AND AVERAGE ENTRY EARNINGS, 1972

	AVERAGE HOURLY ENTRY EARNINGS FOR SKILLED WORKERS	PERCENT MALE	PERCENT FEMALE
PLUMBING AND PIPEFITTING	$8.15	99.9	.1
MASONRY	7.87	99.2	.8
CARPENDRY	7.55	98.5	1.5
AUTO BODY AND FENDER	6.54	99.1	.9
REFRIGERATION	6.25	92.7	7.3
AUTO MECHANICS	6.15	97.7	2.3
AIR CONDITIONING	5.12	96.0	4.0
ELECTRICAL OCCUPATIONS	5.04	98.9	1.1
APPLIANCE REPAIR	4.87	97.0	3.0
DENTAL HYGENIST	4.28	3.6	96.4
METALWORKING OCCUPATIONS	4.21	99.0	1.0
COSMETOLOGY	3.75	0.0	94.0
FOOD AND NUTRITION	3.60	13.8	86.2
STENO-SECRETARIAL AND RELATED	3.16	4.0	96.0
CHILD DEVELOPMENT	3.13	4.0	96.0
PRACTICAL NURSE	3.00	5.6	94.4
CLOTHING AND TEXTILES	2.61	2.0	93.0
FILING AND OFFICE MACHINES	2.40	17.8	82.2

Adapted from Women in Vocational Education by Project Baseline, as reported in Learner, Bergstron, and Champagne, Equal Vocational Education, Center for Human Resources, University of Houston, 1976.



What Do They Pay? Average Salaries For Selected Jobs

Here are average annual salaries paid in 1984 for persons in the following occupations. Unless otherwise specified, the figure is the national average for all workers.

Less than $20,000

Senior Key Entry Operator $12,500
Bank Assistant Branch Manager $18,000
Waiter/Waitress (Las Vegas) $14,000-$17,000
Armed Security Guard $17,297
File Clerk $10,712
College Bookstore Director $19,913
Police ("911 Line" Operator, NY) $13,180
Radio News Reporter $13,000
Licensed Practical Nurse (Washington State) $12,360
Manufacturing Production Worker $18,886
Secretary (High school grad) $16,000
Turkey cleaner (East) $11,270
Messenger $11,230
Typist $13,041
Roman Catholic Nun (East) $6,000 plus housing
Minor Pro League Basketball Player $15,000
Accounting Clerk $16,077
Correctional Officer (Washington State) $17,232
Typing Pool Supervisor (Minnesota) $16,476
Grocery Produce Clerk $10,100

$20,000 to $29,999

Airline Flight Attendant $27,000
Bank Cashier $28,000-38,000
Federal Government (all jobs) $25,354
Fire Fighter $24,000
Data Processing Specialist $22,500
Cook (Las Vegas) $20,000-25,000
Word Processing Manager $22,400
Buyer (2-4 years exp.) $27,600
Association Exhibits Manager $28,200
Accountant (5-8 years exp.) $26,500
College Assistant Professor $22,000
College Associate Professor $27,000
Auditor $29,005
Technical Recruiter $24,300-35,900
Registered Nurse (Minnesota) $20,672
Bank Branch Manager $27,500
Postal Service Worker $23,058
Secretary (Bachelor's degree) $20,000
Publications Editor (5 plus years exp.) $29,400
Radio News Director $24,000
Painter (Minnesota) $20,484
Recruiter, Managerial Employees $26,460
State and Local Government (all employees) $21,000
Vocational Education Teacher (Minnesota) $27,120

$30,000 to $49,999

Agricultural Engineer $38,740
Electrical Engineer $42,290
Captain, US Army $30,400
College Professor $33,000
Personnel Director $47,745
Senior Computer Systems Analyst $33,000
Bank Real Estate Lending Officer $41,200
Steel Mill Production Worker $45,023
Market Research Manager $44,664
Nuclear Engineer $47,640
State Geological Survey Director $43,900
Plant Manager $41,900
Recruitment Manager $37,000-$42,400
Sanitary Engineer $39,000
TV News Director $31,200
EDP Operations Manager $36,500
Lawyer $49,022

$50,000 and over

Public Accounting Firm Partner $64,500
Petroleum Engineer $51,000
Judge (Cleveland) $57,000
Air Line Captain $95,000
Dean, Engineering College $55,824
Federal Civil Service (top salary) $68,700
Vice-President, Marketing $63,000
Investment Banker $200,000
Association, Top Executive (Washington) $98,500
Physician (East) $97,700
College President, Large School $70,000 plus $37,000 benefits
Major League Baseball Player $289,194
US Cabinet Officer $86,200
Chief Justice, US Supreme Court $104,700

Sources: Association salary studies, *National Business Employment Weekly*, Scientific Manpower Commission, Abbott Langer and Associates, and many others

Minichart prepared by the *Career Opportunities News*, Garrett Park Press, Garrett Park, Maryland 20896. Telephone 301/946-2553.

MAJOR OCCUPATIONS EMPLOYING MEN AND WOMEN

TEN MAJOR OCCUPATIONS EMPLOYING WOMEN	TEN MAJOR OCCUPATIONS EMPLOYING MEN
SECRETARIES	ENGINEERS
FOOD SERVICE WORKERS	CARPENTERS
TEACHERS (EXCEPT COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY)	AUTO MECHANICS
SALES CLERKS	MECHANICS (EXCEPT AUTO)
BOOKKEEPERS	BLUE COLLAR (WORKER SUPERVISORS)
HEALTH SERVICE WORKERS (DENTAL ASSISTANTS PRACTICAL NURSES NURSING AIDES)	TRUCK DRIVERS
	CLEANING WORKERS
PERSONAL SERVICE WORKERS (HAIRDRESSERS_ CHILD CARE WORKERS ATTENDANTS)	FOOD SERVICE WORKERS
	FARM OWNERS AND TENANTS
NURSES_ DIETICIANS THERAPISTS	PROTECTIVE SERVICE WORKERS (FIRE POLICE ETC)
CASHIERS	
PRIVATE HOUSEHOLD WORKERS	

WOMEN AND EDUCATION

More promise than progress

WOMEN AND EDUCATION

SOME THINGS TO CONSIDER:

- Of the 10,800,000 women at or below the poverty level in 1978, 3/5 were high school drop-outs.
- At all educational levels, women have higher unemployment rates than men.
- Women with less than four years of high school have the highest unemployment of all adult women in the labor force.
- About 18,000 women earned M.B.A.'s in 1984, six times as many as in 1974.
- There has been a slight increase in the female enrollment in agriculture and technical programs since 1976, but there has been virtually none in T & I.
- In 1979 for the first time since World War II, women college undergraduate students outnumbered men students.
- In 1974 there were 65 female superintendents in the United States. In 1980 there were 164 in 16,000 public school districts, less than 1%.
- The more education a woman has, the greater the likelihood that she will seek paid employment.
- Between 1972 and 1980 the number of women increased:

  from 11% to 26% in medical school;
  from 10% to 34% in law school;
  from 12% to 39% in veterinary school; and
  from 16% to 30% of awarded doctorates.

- In the academic year 1979-80, women represented only 1 out of every 10 engineering graduates.
- Nearly 2,500,000 women 25 and older (more than double the number in 1972) were enrolled in college in 1981.
- Since Title IX (1972) the number of women in college sports has increased 250% and the number of girls playing high school sports has increased from 7% to 35% of all students in sports.

FAMOUS WOMEN QUIZ

Can you match the name and occupations of the following women?

____ 1. Elizabeth Hamersley
____ 2. Sally Ride
____ 3. Barbara Jordan
____ 4. Sandra Day O'Connor
____ 5. Grace Murray Hopper
____ 6. Arabetta Mansfield
____ 7. Clara Barton (1821-1912)
____ 8. Elizabeth Blackwell (1821-1910)
____ 9. Mary Baker Eddy (1821-1910)
____10. Margaret Thatcher
____11. Frances Shea
____12. Marie Curie (1867-1934)
____13. Chris Evert Lloyd
____14. Frances Perkins (1880-1965)
____15. Virginia Johnson Masters
____16. Lucy Stone (1818-1893)
____17. Jeannette Rankin
____18. Carol Vote
____19. Victoria Claflin Woodhull (1838-1927)
____20. Ms Dorothy Horrell

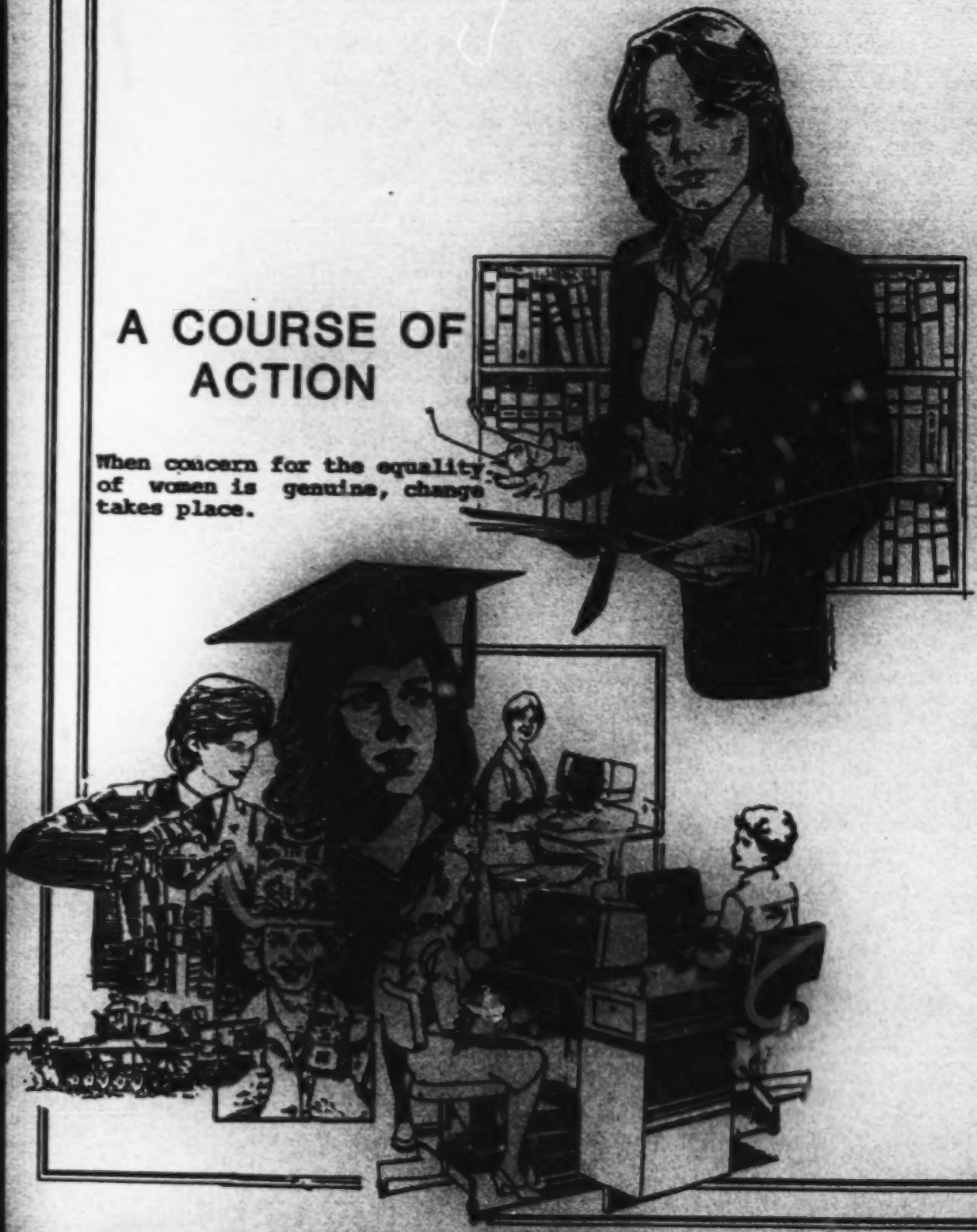
a. First female physician
b. One of four women who started the Boy's Clubs of America.
c. Rear Admiral, Navy
d. Pioneered the study of human sexuality
e. Tennis champion
f. First black congresswoman
g. Astronaut
h. Computer genius, designed Cobol.
i. Supreme Court Justice
j. First woman lawyer
k. Founder of the American Red Cross
l. Originator of Christian Science Church
m. Western Europe's first woman Prime Minister
n. First U. S. Cabinet Member (D.O.L.)
o. Discoverer of the element of radium
p. First woman in U.S. to keep her own name after marriage
q. First woman to be nominated for the presidency of the U.S.
r. First woman to serve in the U. S. Congress
s. Sex Equity Coordinator
t. Director, Occupational Education

ANSWERS

1. B
2. G
3. F
4. I
5. H
6. J
7. K
8. A
9. L
10. M
11. C
12. O
13. E
14. N
15. D
16. P
17. C
18. S
19. Q
20. T

A COURSE OF ACTION

When concern for the equality of women is genuine, change takes place.



THE CARL D. PERKINS VOCATIONAL EDUCATION ACT
A SEX EQUITY ANALYSIS

The Smith-Hughes Act in 1917 set the stage for discriminatory legislation for vocational education. Females were trained for one set of occupations and men for another. It was not until the 1976 Amendments to the Vocational Education Act of 1963 that funding was directed toward the elimination sex bias and sex stereotyping.

On October 19, 1984, The President signed the Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act, Public Law 98-542, which redesigned the Nation's federal vocational education program. The law which will be in effect through fiscal year 1989 provides support and funds for the training of females. The specific requirements are as follows:

1. A full-time Sex Equity Coordinator is to be hired in each State using federal vocational funds. The coordinator will:
    a. Administer programs of vocational education for single parents, homemakers, and the sex equity program.
    b. Gather and evaluate data on the adequacy and effectiveness of vocational education programs in meeting the needs of women.
    c. Review programs, including career guidance and counseling, for sex stereotyping and sex bias, with particular attention to practices which tend to inhibit the entry of women in high technology occupations.
    d. Develop recommendations for programs of information and outreach to women concerning vocational education and employment opportunities.
    e. Provide assistance to educational institutions to expand vocational opportunities for women;
    f. Assist in implementing programs and activities to increase access for women to vocational education and to increase male and female students' enrollment in nontraditional programs.
2. The coordinator is to be responsible for the program administration for Title II programs for single parents and homemakers.
3. The emphasis on technical and nontraditional training has been increased.
4. States are now required to expend $60,000 in each fiscal year to carry out these provisions in this section of the Act, which is an increase over the $50,000 required in the 1976 Amendments.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Through advisory committee activities and other contacts with business, industry and labor, the importance/necessity of hiring women should be brought to the forefront.

2. Through classes and/or job placement services information on employment rights and government regulations affecting business and industries should be offered.

3. The need to increase women's enrollment in nontradtiional vocational training programs must be approached in a positive manner, stressing the rewards for achieving equity as opposed to viewing it as simply a legislative mandate.

4. Equity in vocational education must not be viewed as "women issues" but as a universal effect of sexism on our society.

5. Sex equity must be accentuated in all areas of the vocational education delivery system. Efforts cannot be limited to one program or at one level.

6. Catalogs and brochures must be developed describing occupation programs without emphasis on sex stereotyping. For instance, the exclusive use of "he" should be avoided when referring to traditionally male programs and "she" when referring to secretarial and nursing courses.

7. The physical facilities of the classes traditionally attracting male or female students should be rearranged so that they are situated near each other.

8. The ratio of females to males on advisory committees needs to be increased. It will take counselors, teachers, administrators, students, publishers, and community leaders working together to eradicate many of the stereotypes prevalent today.

BARRIERS TO SEX EQUITY IN EDUCATION*

1. TRADITIONAL ATTITUDES IN THE COMMUNITY
2. LACK OF WOMEN ADMINISTRATIVE ROLE MODELS
3. TRADITIONAL ATTITUDES AMONG SCHOOL PERSONNEL
4. LACK OF MEN TEACHERS IN ELEMENTARY GRADES
5. EMPHASIS ON BOY'S SPORTS
6. LACK OF NONTRADITIONAL ROLE MODELS (nurses, cheerleaders, secretaries, librarians, food service, maintenance)
7. TRADITIONAL ATTITUDES AMONG STUDENTS
8. ROLE STEREOTYPES IN TEXTBOOKS
9. COURSES LIMITED TO ONE SEX
10. BIOLOGICAL ISSUES (motherhood, less strength)

*In rank order

Rank order determined by interviews with 300 school employees in which they identified barriers which limit the development of sexual equality.

Donna Young, et al. "Reducing Stereotypic Attitudes: A Prerequisite to Educational Equity", 1982. (ERIC: 218-382)

ISOLATION AND SEPARATION HURT

At school, we used to:

-- Make the boys play ball on one side of the playground and girls jump rope on the other.

-- Go to the lunch room in two lines, boys in one, girls in the other; or in one line, girls first, boys last.

-- Ask girls to take notes while the boys carried the books to the bookroom.

-- Expect boys to be rowdy and girls to be quiet.

-- Counsel girls to take home economics and boys to take agriculture.

-- Spank boys and make the girls write sentences.

-- Encourage boys to reach for their goals and caution girls to be realistic.

-- Expect girls to be great in English and boys to be superior in math.

-- Hear parents admonishing their daughters to pick the right man while preparing their sons to earn a living.

-- Read textbooks that showed boys as active, producing, contributing people. Those same books showed girls watching the boys.

-- Pit boys against girls in spelling bees.

-- Say sex was bad for girls, okay for boys.

-- Expect girls to cry and boys to hold their chins up.

-- Call on boys to respond in class while the girls remained silent.

-- Began each day with, "Good morning, boys and girls."

-- Expect the boys to pay for the gas, the food, and the movies while the girls looked pretty on the way.

-- Say, "Men work and women stay at home."

-- Expect girls to be emotional and boys to be rational.

-- Expect boys to fix things, while girls had their things fixed.

-- Expel the pregnant girl from school while the young father-to-be continued to go to class.

-- Criticize girls on a personal basis and boys on a task-oriented basis.

-- Pay more attention to the boys than the girls.

-- Provide nurseries for mothers who came to P.T.A. and booster club meetings.

-- Let him be the doctor in the school play and her be the nurse.

-- Walk past restrooms in the teachers' lounge labeled, "men" and "ladies."

-- Seldom read about women in history, but we always knew what our forefathers did.

-- Buy cakes at the girls bake sale while we had our cars washed by the FFA club.

-- Appoint boys safety patrolmen and hall monitors, even when the girls were physically bigger than the boys.

-- Establish "boys club" and "girls clubs."

-- Encourage girls to volunteer and help others while telling the boys to become self-reliant by mowing lawns for money.

-- Hold pep rallies for the football team but never for the girls basketball team.

-- Tell the boy he could be president; tell the girl that she could marry one.

-- Give boys big varsity letters and girls little ones or none at all.

-- Pay female coaches less than male coaches.

-- Invite fathers to come to school to talk about where they worked. Ask mothers to make favors and bring cookies for Valentine's Day.

-- Call ninthgraders, "freshmen."

-- Give a football banquet for the boys and have the girls serve their meals with iced tea.

And when school was over, we used to:

--Tell them to marry each other and live happily ever after...
and then wonder why it didn't work out.

Source: Moynihan, T., Education Service Center, Region II, Corpus Cristi, Texas, February, 1983.

NONTRADITIONAL WOMEN'S PERCEPTIONS OF WHY FEMALES DO NOT ENROLL IN NONTRADITIONAL PROGRAMS

Feel Intimidated

Afraid They Won't Be Accepted

Think They Can't Do the Work

The Socialization of Women

Lack of Interest

Peer Pressure

Lack of Career Information

Discouraged by Counselors

Lack of Background, i.e. Math

Lack of Family Support

Difficult to Get Into the Programs

Do Not Want to Get Dirty

Fear of Not Being Feminine

Do Not Want to Be Different

Fear Change

Source: Hollenback, K. L. "Developing an Equity Handbook for Community College Personnel." Final Report, Pueblo Community College, Pueblo, Colorado, June, 1985.

TRADITIONAL WOMEN'S PERCEPTIONS OF WHY FEMALES DO NOT ENROLL IN NONTRADITIONAL PROGRAMS

They Are Not Interested

Physical Limitations

Lack of Family Support

Do Not Want to Compete

Not Available When Young

Will Not Advance on the Job

Women Want to Be Women

Perceive It as Men Only

Men Intimidate Women

Social and Peer Pressure

Difficult to Get Started

Lack of Knowledge About Jobs

Lack of Role Models

Fear of Failing

Misguided by Counselors

Source: Hollenback, K. L. "Developing an Equity Handbook for Community College Personnel." Final Report, Pueblo Community College, Pueblo, Colorado, June, 1985.

SUPPORT SERVICES NEEDED* BY NONTRADITIONAL WOMEN

Child Care Facility

Tutoring

Career Information/Placement

Internships in Training Area

Personal Counseling

Job Acquisition Skills

Financial Aid

Orientation Materials for Registration

Off-campus Classes

More Reference Books

Scholarships for Women

Mentoring Program

*In rank order

Source: Hollenback, K. L. "Developing an Equity Handbook for Community College Personnel", Final Report. Pueblo Community College, Pueblo, Colorado, June, 1985.

THE BIG SEVEN

1. Reach Out (Find Them)

   Identify and reach students with introductory information about nontraditional occupations as a promising career option.

   8th grade, adult learning center, newspaper articles, school program, radio and T.V. interviews

2. Explore (Show Them)

   Provide students in-depth information about nontraditional occupations that they need to make informed occupational decisions.

   workshop, assembly, career center tours, demonstrations

3. Enroll (Sign Them Up)

   Provide system of enrollment that encourages nontraditional enrollment and students enroll in nontraditional programs.

   testing, counseling, scheduling, refresher course, walk through registration

4. Train (Teach Them)

   Students receive training in nontraditional programs.

   math help, textbook review, teaching technique

5. Retain (Support Them)

   Students complete nontraditional programs.

   day care, transportation, work, community services, parent programs

6. Placement (Place Them)

   mock interview, resumes, employer interview, employer contacts

7. Follow Up (Follow Them Up)

   survey, personal contact with former student, placement personnel

Source: Schuchat, Jo. The Nuts and Bolts of Nontraditional Occupations. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Technical Education Research Center, 1981.

TRADITIONAL WOMEN'S PERCEPTIONS OF HOW MORE WOMEN CAN BE RECRUITED INTO NONTRADITIONAL PROGRAMS

Career/Information

Advertising

Change in Society's Attitudes

Change in Employer's Attitudes

Information About Better Pay

More Support for Women in Nontraditional Classes

Change in Co-Workers' Attitudes

More Direction/Help When Enrolling

Role Models for Young People

If They Were in Classes in Groups

Recruit Female Teachers

Source: Hollenback, K. L. "Developing an Equity Handbook for Community College Personnel", Final Report. Pueblo Community College, Pueblo, Colorado, June, 1985.

NONTRADITIONAL WOMEN'S PERCEPTION OF HOW MORE WOMEN CAN BE RECRUITED INTO NONTRADITIONAL PROGRAMS

More Career Information

Recruitment Programs

More Female Role Models

Advertising

More Counseling

Need to Increase Women's Self-Esteem

Must Be a Self-Decision

Career Exploration Programs

Support Groups

Attitudes Must Be Changed

Networking

Seminars

Message: Courses Make Women Independent

Source: Hollenback, K. L. "Developing an Equity Handbook for Community College Personnel", Final Report. Pueblo Community College, Pueblo, Colorado, June, 1985.

LANGUAGE FACT SHEET

Research by various linguilsts, social scientists and educators indicates that for the majority of males and females who participated in their studies, words do make a difference.

When 100 children between nursery school and seventh grade were asked to respond to the word "man" in sentences such as "Man must work in order to eat," and "Around the world, man is happy,"

- a majority of the children interpreted "man" to mean males and not females.

When 50 high school students were asked to illustrate seven statements on human activities during early civilization, students drew:

- male figures for six of the seven statements when the word "man," "mankind" and "primitive man" were used.

- male figures for a majority of the statements when the words "people" and "human" were used.

- more females than previously for statements when the words "men and women" were used.

Three hundred college students were asked to select pictures to illustrate chapter title pages for a proposed sociology textbook. When the words

- "political man" and "urban man" were used, 64 percent of the students selected all male pictures.

- "political behavior" or "urban life" were used, only 50 percent of the students chose male pictures.

When college students in another study were asked to react to the masculine pronoun "he" in multiple choice statements, the word "he" was interpreted as

- male 407 times
- female 53 times

When high school students were asked to rate their interest in job advertisements written in neutral and varied language,

- females showed no interest in jobs labeled as "frameman" or "lineman", but showed interest in jobs labeled as "framewoman."

- males showed no interest in "operator" or "sales representative" jobs when associated with the word "she" and showed an interest in "telephone operator" jobs when associated with the word "he."

WHY ARE:

- DEVIOUS MEN CONSIDERED SHREWD WHEN DEVIOUS WOMEN ARE SCHEMING?
- LIGHTHEARTED MEN CALLED EASYGOING BUT THE SAME TYPE OF WOMEN ARE CALLED FRIVOLOUS?
- WOMEN WHO ARE THOUGHTFUL CALLED CONSIDERATE WHILE THOUGHTFUL MEN ARE CALLED OVER-SENSITIVE?
- CAREFUL MEN CALLED PRUDENT BUT THE SAME KIND OF WOMAN IS CALLED OBSESSIVE?
- WOMEN WHO ARE DAUNTLESS CONSIDERED BRAZEN WHEN DAUNTLESS MEN ARE CONSIDERED FEARLESS?
- FORCEFUL MALES REFERRED TO AS CHARISMATIC WHILE FEMALES ARE DOMINEERING?
- MEN WHO ARE INTERESTED IN EVERYTHING REFERRED TO AS CURIOUS BUT WOMEN OF THE SAME TYPE ARE CALLED NOSY?
- MEN WHO ARE FORGETFUL CALLED ABSENTMINDED WHEN FORGETFUL BUT WOMEN ARE CALLED SCATTERBRAINED?
- ANGRY MEN CALLED OUTRAGED WHILE ANGRY WOMEN ARE CALLED HYSTERICAL?
- WOMEN WHO ARE IRONIC CALLED BITTER WHILE IRONIC MEN ARE CALLED HUMOROUS?
- MEN WHO ARE EFFICIENT REFERRED TO AS COMPETENT BUT EFFICIENT WOMEN ARE COMPULSIVE?

WHY IS IT:

- THAT WHEN MEN TALK TOGETHER IT IS CALLED CONVERSATION BUT WHEN WOMEN TALK TOGETHER IT IS CALLED GOSSIP?
- THAT MEN OF ORDINARY APPEARANCE ARE CALLED PLEASANT-LOOKING WHEN ORDINARY WOMEN ARE CALLED HOMELY?
- THAT OBSTINATE MEN ARE CALLED STRONG-WILLED WHEN OBSTINATE WOMEN ARE CALLED STUBBORN?
- THAT WHEN SPEAKING ABOUT PEOPLE WHO ARE TALKATIVE, WHY ARE MEN CALLED ARTICULATE AND WOMEN GABBY?

...because meanings are in people and sexism comes out in our language.

EQUALITY IN LANGUAGE

EXCLUSIONARY LANGUAGE	ALTERNATIVES
mankind	humanity, human beings, people
man's achievements	human achievements
the best man for the job	the best person for the job, the best man or woman for the job
man-made	synthetic, manufactured, machine-made
the common man	the average person, ordinary people
salesman	sales representative, sales clerk
businessman	business executive, business manager, business leader, merchant, entrepreneur
airline stewardess	flight attendant
housewife	homemaker
The typical homemaker is concerned about her family's eating habits.	Family eating habits are a concern of the typical homemaker.
Give each student his paper as soon as he is finished.	Give students their papers as soon as they are finished.
a homeowner and his family	homeowners and their families
a farmer and his wife	a farm couple
men and ladies	women and men or gentlemen and ladies

Source: Steelman, Susan, Stapleton, Dan Schlichting, Harley. Guidelines for Equal Treatment of the Sexes in IML Publications. Columbia, Missouri: Instructional Materials Laboratory, U. C., 1978.

FORMS OF BIAS IN TEXTS AND INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

1. INVISIBILITY: Certain groups are underrepresented in curricular materials. The significant omission of women and minority groups has become so great as to imply that these groups are of less value, importance, and significance in our society.

2. STEREOTYPING: By assigning traditional and rigid roles or attributes to a group, instructional materials stereotype and limit the abilities and potential of that group. Stereotyping denies students a knowledge of the diversity, complexity, and variation of any group of individuals. Children who see themselves portrayed only in stereotypic ways may internalize those stereotypes and fail to develop their own unique abilities, interests, and full potential.

3. IMBALANCE/SELECTIVITY: Textbooks perpetuate bias by presenting only one interpretation of an issue, situation, or group of people. This imbalanced account restricts the knowledge of students regarding the varied perspectives which may apply to a particular situation. Through selective presentation of materials, textbooks distort reality and ignore complex and differing viewpoints. As a result, millions of students have been given limited perspective concerning the contributions, struggles, and participation of certain groups in our society.

4. UNREALITY: Textbooks frequently present an unrealistic portrayal of our history and our contemporary life experience. Controversial topics are glossed over and discussions of discrimination and prejudice are avoided. This unrealistic coverage denies children the information they need to recognize, understand, and perhaps some day conquer the problems that plague our society.

5. FRAGMENTATION/ISOLATION: By separating issues related to minorities and women from the main body of the text, instructional materials imply that these issues are less important than and not a part of the cultural mainstream.

6. LINGUISTIC BIAS: Curricular materials reflect the discriminatory nature of our language. Masculine terms and pronouns, ranging from our "forefathers" to the generic "he", deny the participation of women in our society. Further, occupations such as "mailman" are given masculine labels that deny the legitimacy of women working in these fields. Imbalance of word order and lack of parallel terms that refer to females and males are also forms of linguistic bias.

Source: Ysleta Equity Program, Ysleta Independent School District, El Paso, Texas, January, 1983.

FACT SHEET ON TEXTBOOKS AND MEDIA

Boys are "doers" and girls "are." This message is conveyed over and over again in educational materials and the media. Since 1970, numerous studies on picture books, early childhood and teenagers' books, elementary and secondary school textbooks and the media, including children's TV shows and advertising, confirm this observation. Here are some specific examples:

A study of 2,760 stories in 134 ELEMENTARY SCHOOL READERS by 14 publishers showed:

- one female biography story for every six male biographies.
- clever boys 131 times and clever girls 33 times.
- passive boys 19 times and passive girls 119 times.
- men in occupations 147 times and women in occupations 25 times.
- one adult female character for every three adult male characters.

Different studies of MATH TEXTBOOKS at the elementary and secondary levels showed:

- word problems dealing with money have males as the subject.
- word problems dealing with females have age, weight or color as the subject.
- word problems indicating roles show females making clothes, buying groceries or acting as housewives and males as building, painting, setting up things or going to work.
- only men are portrayed as mathematicians, scientists, doctors and astronauts.
- the higher the grade level, the more male-oriented the book becomes.

Various studies of the most frequently used SOCIAL STUDIES/HISTORY TEXTBOOKS showed:

- male-oriented language, i.e. people called "man."
- omission of women's accomplishments in history.
- women relegated to separate or lesser status than men.
- men in three times as many professions as women.
- males in seven times as many pictures as females.

In studies of SCIENCE AND INDUSTRIAL ARTS TEXTBOOKS, it was found that:

- nine out of 10 illustrations show boys doing experiments or handling equipment as compared to girls.
- male pronouns such as "he" are used to describe science/industrial arts teachers.
- physical properties illustrated in science and industrial arts textbooks are associated with traditional male roles.

A study of 100 SECONDARY HOME ECONOMICS TEXTBOOKS published from 1964-74 by 54 companies showed:

- nurturing males zero times and nurturing females 38 times.
- males in the home 52 times and females in the home 199 times.
- males interested in clothes 9 times and females interested in clothes 107 times.
- males interested in nutrition 17 times and females interested in nutrition 60 times.

A study of 10 most popular CHILDREN'S TV PROGRAMS showed:

- good males 67 times and good females 43 times.
- aggressive males 25 times and aggressive females 14 times.
- passive males 25 times and passive females 37 times.
- magical males 4 times and magical females 16 times.

Observations of TV AND MAGAZINE ADVERTISING show:

- boys as active and girls as passive.
- men as coming home from work and females as staying home, taking care of children, washing dishes and doing laundry.
- men as good-looking, muscular and athletic and women as sex objects.

REFERENCES

Altbach, E. H. Women In America, Lexington, Kentucky, D. C. Health and Company, 1974.

"Career Savvy". Savvy, July, 1985, pg. 9.

Cott, N. F. and Elizabeth H. Peck. Heritage of Her Own. New York, Simon and Schuster, 1979.

Cunningham, Daisy Louise (1979). Sex Role Attitudes of Vocational Educators in Missouri Secondary Schools (Doctoral Dissertation, University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri).

Deckard, B. S. The Women's Movement. New York, Harper & Row, Publishers, Inc., 1983.

Devore, M. A. and J. D. Good. "Equality in Language: An Instructional Unit in Sex Equity." Columbia, Missouri, Missouri University, 1981.

Dittman, Jennette K. (1978). Sex Role Perceptions of North Dakota Vocational Educators: Final Report (Research Series No. 38). Fargo: North Dakota University. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 131 336).

Donahue, Thomas J. & Costar, James W. (1977). Counselor Discrimination Against Young Women in Career Selection. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 24, 481-486.

Eliason, N. C. "Equity From A Vocational Education Research Perspective," Columbus, Ohio: The National Center for Research in Vocational Education, 1980.

Eversole, J. A. (1977). Relationship Between Sex-Role Attitudes of Pennsylvania Vocational Educators and Their Stated Beliefs About Their Own Sex Role Orientation (Master's Thesis, Pennsylvania State University). (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 147 515).

Female Executive. February, 1985, pg. 7.

Frazier, N. & Sadker, M. (1973). Sexism in School and Society. New York: Harper and Row.

Furniss, W. T. and Graham, P. A. "Women in Higher Education," Washington, D. C. : American Council on Education, 1972.

Hantjis, A. P. (1977). The Relationships Between Knowledge and Attitudes and Between Attitudes and Behavioral Intent Concerning Sex-Role Stereotyping in Vocational Education (Doctoral dissertation, Rutgers University, New Brunswick, New Jersey).

Harrison, L. R. & others (1979). Vocational Education Equity Study (Volume 1). Palo Alto, California: America Institute for Research.

Henley, N. and Jo Freeman. "The Sexual Politics on Interpersonal Behavior." *In Women: A Feminist Perspective*. Ed. Jo Freeman, Palo Alto: Mayfield Publishing Company, 1975.

Hole, J. and Ellen Leirne, Rebirth of Feminism New York, Quadrangle Books, Inc., 1971.

Hollenback, K. L. "Developing an Equity Handbook for Community College Personnel." Final Report. Pueblo, Colorado, Pueblo Community College. June, 1985.

Hollenback, K. L. (1984) Evidence of Sex-Biased Counseling by Vocational Guidance Personnel in Texas (Paper presented at the Women and Work Symposium). University of Texas at Arlington: Arlington, Texas.

Janeway, E. Man's World, Woman's Place. New York, William Morrow and Company, Inc., 1971.

Manrow, A. (1978). Basic Beliefs Regarding Sex Bias Among Post-Secondary Occupational Educators in Region Three (Doctoral dissertation, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, Blacksburg, Virginia).

Marlow, H. C. and Harrison M. Davis. The American Search for Woman. Santa Barbara, California, Clio Books, 1976.

Moore, K.M. "The Cooling Out of Two-Year College Women," Personnel and Guidance Journal Vol. 53. No. 8 (August, 1978) pp 578-583.

Moynihan, T., Education Service Center, Region 11, Corpus Christi, Texas, February, 1983.

"Newslines". Glamour, October, 1983, pg. 99.

Persons, W. E., III (1972). Occupational Prediction as a Function of Counselor's Racial and Sexual Bias (Doctoral dissertation, University of Florida, Gainesville, Florida).

Raven S. and Alison Weir. Women of Achievement. New York, Harmony Books, 1981.

Schlossberg, N. K. & Pietrofesa, J. J. (1973). Perspective on Counseling Bias: Implications for Counselor Education. The Counseling Psychologist, 4, 44-54.

Schuchat, J. The Nuts and Bolts of Nontraditional Occupations. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Technical Education Research Center, 1981.

Schwartz, J. L. (1974). A Study of Guidance Counselor Sex Bias in the Occupational Recommendations Made for Female Students of Superior Intelligence (Doctoral dissertation, New York University, New York, New York).

Smith, M. L. (1972). Responses of Counselors to Case Materials of Clients Differentiated by Gender and Ethnic Group (Doctoral dissertation, University of Colorado, Boulder, Colorado).

Steele, M. (1974). Women in Vocational Education. Flagstaff, Arizona: Northern Arizona University. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 099 689).

Thomas, A. & Stewart, N. (1971). Counselor's Response to Female Clients with Deviate and Conforming Career Goals. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 18, 352-357.

Thorne, J. L. (1974). The Relationship of the Job Market and Motivational Factors on the Career Goals and/or Job Choices of Flint High School Seniors (Doctoral dissertation, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan).

U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau (1974). The Myth and the Reality. Washington, D. C. U. S. Government Printing Office.

Winstead, A. S. et al. "Pathways to Sex Equity: Training Module for Promoting Sex Equity in Vocational Education," Columbia, South Carolina, South Carolina State Dept., 1981.

Woerner, J. B. (1976). A Comparison of Men and Women Teachers in Comprehensive High Schools and Men and Women Teachers in Vocational Schools on Ten Factors Relating to Women's Work Roles (Doctoral dissertation, Rutgers University, New Brunswick, New Jersey).

Young, D., "Reducing Stereotypic Attitudes: A Prerequisite to Educational Equity," 1982. (ERIC 218-382).